DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 200 894 CS 005 929

AUTHOR Wilson, Robert D.
TITLE A Schema for a Second-Language Experience Approach to the Teaching of Reading.
PUB DATE Aug 80
NOTE 39p.: Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the World Congress on Reading (8th, Manila, Philippines, August 5-7, 1980).

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Context Clues; *Decoding (Reading); *English (Second Language); *Language Experience Approach; *Language Processing; Models; Reading Comprehension; *Reading Instruction; *Second Language Learning; Writing (Composition)
IDENTIFIERS *Schemata

ABSTRACT

Noting that while the language experience approach to reading instruction assumes that the learner is intuitively familiar with the language and that this familiarity facilitates recognition of the language on the printed page, this paper argues that students learning to read in a second language do not have the same degree of intuitive familiarity with the language as do native speakers. The paper provides a schema for providing learners the opportunity to identify their intuitive familarity with language and with the second language as it appears in print. The schema described is a model of factors that includes (1) learning, which involves the four tasks of comprehension, comparison, composition, and concentration; (2) language, which involves the tasks of semantics, shape, structure, and skill; (3) clues, which is decoding by encoding in the linguistic sense of getting the message by giving the message to oneself; (4) media of communication, which includes the four general types of sentence, paragraph, content, and style; and (5) adaptive processes, which involve expecting, confirming, remembering, and organizing. An addendum provides some word segmenting rules for English, Spanish, and Pilipino. (HOD)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED200894

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

Dr. Robert D. Wilson
San Ysidro School District
4350 Otay Mesa Road
San Ysidro, California 92073

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Robert D. Wilson

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

A Schema for a Second-Language Experience Approach to the Teaching of Reading.

Session
1030-1200 hours
Tuesday, August 5, 1980
Panay room

The language experience approach to the teaching of reading assumes that the learner is intuitively familiar with the language and that this familiarity facilitates his recognition of the language on the printed page. But students learning to read in a second language do not have the same degree of intuitive familiarity with the language as a native speaker does.

CS205929

The degree of intuitive familiarity can be intensified by conscious awareness and conscious practice of the major characteristics of Language (semantics, shape, structure, and skill) and of the major strategies for learning the structures specific to the second language as they appear in print. This paper will provide a schema for providing the learner the opportunity to intensify his intuitive familiarity with Language and with the second language as it appears in print.

This does not mean that the schema cannot take advantage of the language experience approach.

The language experience approach has been described as "a method of teaching reading in which, during the early phases, reading materials are developed by recording children's spoken language." (7) This guarantees that the learner is coping with language with which he is already familiar. The unfamiliar is its printed form. In other words, he proceeds from the known to the unknown. The same objective can be achieved without using the learner's actual spoken language. This is done by teaching and determining, at the outset of each lesson, that the learner orally understands and is familiar with the specific material being presented for reading practice.

Although both types of material can be used with the schema--the recorded spoken language of the learner or the teacher's language learned by the student beforehand--the latter lends itself to a better selection and organization of the content for the teaching of the structures and conventions of the second language.

Still, there is the matter of motivation. One of the strong arguments advanced for the language experience approach is that in using the learner's own experience, the material becomes relevant and motivating. Be that as it may, it does not include the more general motivation to acquire new experiences through reading. In other words, while the student may be flattered by seeing his speech in print, he is not learning the excitement of expanding his experiences through reading. The pay off is an ego trip rather than growth.

In the meantime, while he is learning how to read--with exercises that require determined discipline--he needs to be motivated. Whether one uses the student's own experience or a familiar yet new experience. The motivation will have to be the overriding motivation of success in learning while learning and in the recognition of such learning. And herein lies the major advantage of the language experience approach for learners

of reading in a second language.

The major advantage is that the language experience approach sets as a precondition that the learner be already familiar, orally and semantically, with the specific language material he is to read...and by which he will learn to read. This is the distinctive characteristic of the language experience approach.

Thus, by focusing on the task of reading rather than on the vocabulary and sentence sense of the material, the learner is free to learn how to read.

And learning how to read means becoming more and more familiar with Language itself, with the language being read in, and with the form it takes in print. Practice, practice, practice. The schema helps make the practice more effective and more efficient.

I hesitate to call what I am about to describe a methodology because it does not take into consideration, explicitly, such major variables as the visual presentation of the material, the demonstration of the task, the reduction of anxiety (reaction to anxiety) except that of learning (Piaget's disequilibrium) (*11*), the empirical

process, the role of intuition, the teacher's presence and attitude, correction routines, techniques for getting and maintaining attention, etc.

What I am about to describe is a schema; it is a model of factors. The factors are learning, language, clues, mediums of communication, and adaptive processes, which will be discussed in that order. (See chart A.)

LEARNING

There are four learning tasks, and they are taught in the following sequence:

COMPREHENSION: Remembering the interpretation of the explicit message. Eventually, inference is taught for conscious contrast. The prime adaptive process is remembering. For example:

> Teacher: This sentence says, "Clap your hands." Do what it says. (Pause) Maria!
>
> Maria claps her hands.
>
> Teacher: Did Maria do it correctly? Ramon!
>
> Ramon: Yes, she did.

COMPARISON: Expecting the semantic shapes to be different. The prime adaptive process is expecting. For example:

Teacher: Which sentence says, "Wave your hands"? (Pause) Nando!

Nando points to the sentence.

Teacher: Did Nando point to the right sentence? Leticia!

Leticia: Yes, he did.

COMPOSITION: Organizing the whole into parts. The "whole" here is a medium of communication: sentence, paragraph, content, style (and, incidentally, it may also include words as such). The prime adaptive process is organizing. For example:

Teacher: Read this phrase. (Pause) Teresa!

Teresa: a circle.

Teacher: Read the sentence.

Teresa: Make a circle.

(Note: The same student performs both tasks.)

Teacher: Did Teresa read it correctly? Jose!

(I.e., did Teresa read it intelligibly, and not necessarily with perfect pronunciation.)

Jose: Yes, she did.

CONCENTRATION: Integrating the four adaptive processes intuitively--in this case, quickly. (10) The prime adaptive process is confirming. For example:

> Teacher flashes a sentence card.
> Teacher: What did that say? (Pause) Lito!
> Lito: Clap your hands.
> Teacher: Is that right? Feling!
> Feling: Yes, that's right.
> (Note: The teacher does not show the flashed card again to check the correctness of the response.)

The four learning tasks are the same tasks for all four mediums of communication: sentence, paragraph, content, style; but the techniques for teaching them will vary accordingly. (See chart B.)

LANGUAGE

There are four general characteristics that are universal for language, and they are the bases for the four learning tasks. (See chart A.)

SEMANTICS: The component of language that generates a communicative interpretation of form. Specifically,

it interprets the deep structure of syntax, which includes entries from the lexicon, and the surface structure, which includes phonological form. (4) This component is assumed to be able to generate interpretations of discourse, that is, of related sentences, as in paragraphs, in content areas, and in specific styles.

SHAPE: The tendency of language to have distinct semantic shapes, i.e., different shapes suggest different meanings. Ambiguity is a rare occurrence and turns out to be unambiguous in context almost always.

STRUCTURE: The relationship between a whole and its parts, a relationship characterized by transformation and self-regulation. (13) Specifically for language, the connection between semantic interpretation on the one hand and its corresponding shape on the other is made by structure, e.g., by syntax for sentences.

SKILL: The use of language accurately and quickly, purposefully and productively. It is skilled use that demonstrates the existence of a language.

CLUES

Clues because they are all--the words, the print, the context, and the background (source)--are all that the reader gets for the purpose of understanding the message the writer intended. And to understand is to invent. (8,14) It is decoding by encoding--not in its usual sense of letter-to-sound decoding of a word (16) but in the linguistic sense of getting the message (decoding) by giving the message (encoding) to oneself. The reader must have some cluse for generating, inventing, encoding a communication that approximates what the writer intended. Without clues and without the attempt to approximate what the writer intended, one is either speaking or writing, not reading. To bring meaning to the printed page does not suggest a disregard for the text.

On the other hand, much of what is being communicated is not on the printed page directly, for example, the meaning-bearing syntactic functions of a sentence like subject, predicate, indirect object, complement, subordinate clause, etc. What are available are clues: words, print, context, and source. What is happening is a heuristic encoding, not an algorithmic decoding. (See chart A.)

For clues to be processed efficiently into communication, one must become familiar with them, and with each type involved. The processing must be efficient in order for the reader to more effectively organize the clues into messages. Familiarity comes with learning the structure of the clues: (a) the spelling patterns of words; (b) the geometric configurations of the alphabet and other printing conventions like spacing and punctuation; (c) the syntactic and semantic expectations of words--Chomsky's feature matrices (3)--for lexical contexts; (d) and the characterization of the source of the message, its author, the type of literature, the intention for reading it, the culture the language represents, the subculture (e.g., white middle class), etc.

Of the four, words are the most specific clues, As part of the syntactic component of a language, they contribute to the generation of the structure of sentences, albeit at the lowest level. Associated with each entry in the lexicon is a matrix of syntactic and semantic features which permit it to fit certain structural configurations and not others. (3)

However, the meaning-bearing syntactic functions of a sentence operate at a level higher than the word. They must be invented by the reader; they are not directly derived, as by algorithm, from the words. For example, it is not so that a pronoun takes the place of a noun (a word replacing another word), but rather it replaces a noun phrase (one form replacing another form with the same meaning-bearing function): "That boy from the Third Grade took the book" does not become "That he from the Third Grade took the book," but rather, "He took the book." Nor does the sentence following, "He said it was his" indicate in any of the words that both he and his refer to the boy from the Third Grade in the preceding sentence, nor that it refers to the book.

Another way in which words serve as clues is in their function as a system for codifying the culture, again albeit at the lowest level. They are clues to the culture, and the reader familiar with them as such can better discern the cultural implications of a text.

Consider next the differences between sentences, words, and letters. Sentences communicate; words do not. Words have meaning; letters do not. Letters distinguish meaning. From the sentence to the letter are leaps and bounds from

the concrete to the abstract. Inversely, to teach for the mastery of letters and their "corresponding" sounds before sentences is to teach for the mastery of abstractions in order to learn the concrete.

It is interesting to note in this regard that Thomas G. Bever has pointed out that "the basic unit of conscious perception is the whole syllable." (2) Not the phoneme. The phonemes--and eventually their corresponding graphemes--are learned in terms of the syllable. For example, that a syllable does not have two spirants following each other in English; rather, the first spirant ends the preceding syllable and the second spirant begins the second syllable, as in lifesaver /layf-seyvɨr/.

Furthermore, just as words do not constitute sentences structurally (except at the lowest level), letters do not constitute words structurally (except at the lowest level). There is a greater affinity (rules of expectations or predictive rules) between t and r in truck than between r and u, between c and k than between u and c, and between uck and tr than between tru and ck. Generalizing u to a vowel, one sees how these spelling patterns apply to a host of words, e.g., train, trip, troll, trek / neck, pick, rock, sack. It is spelling patterns (in terms of syllables) that constitute words structurally.

It is through the higher levels of structure that recall is facilitated, that such schemes better serve the Piagetian processes of assimilation and accomodation. (1,12,16)

The structure of words, like the structure of sentences, is language specific. The spelling patterns of English words differ from those of Pilipino words, and the spelling patterns of Pilipino words differ from those of Spanish words. (See chart C.) It goes without saying that the structures of a language must be respected when presenting the material to the students. And to be the true to the structures of the target language, they must be presented as systemic wholes, not as variables of the native language.

When contrastive analysis is the basis for sequencing second-language courses or when the particular objectives of a lesson are presented as variants of the native language, the probable consequence in the student's mind is a list of translation procedures--demonstrably more complex than the system of rules of the target language. And the result is a compound rather than a coordinate bilingual student. The explanation is straightforward: the particular transfers, both positive and negative, are the outcome of

the accidental similarities and differences between the two languages that the student happens to be concerned with, of the functional load of these structures, and of the sequence in which they have been learned. The basic learning strategy becomes trial and error with very little of what he learns (about similarities and differences) useful in predicting and learning new structures in the target language.

On the other hand, general abstract processes of Language do transfer systematically, processes like segmentation and transformation. They transfer when the learner is made aware of such processes in a task-oriented form in his own native language and when he is taught to apply them to the second language. For example, if a Filipino student is practiced in segmenting words into the stressed syllable and the rest of the word, as in ba, bahay "house", he can learn to transfer this skill to win, window. (2) Similarly with (derivational) transformations: patay "dead" ==> patayin "kill" may transfer to light ==> lighten. Or, in sentences, if he is used to segmenting Mabait / ang babae "The girl is kind," he can learn to transfer the skill to The boy / is hungry. And with transformations: Mabait ang babae + Pinakain ng babae ang lalake "The girl fed the boy" ==> Pinakain ng mabait na babae ang lalake "The kind girl fed the boy." Similarly in English: The boy is hungry + The girl fed the boy ==> The girl fed the hungry boy. The student expects segmentation and transformation in every language he encounters because

abstract processes like these are universal linguistic abilities, innate in each of us and in every newborn.

The spelling and syllabic patterns of words, their selectional and derivational features--often requiring transformations (S), and their contribution to the semantic interpretation of sentences give them shape, structure, and a role in semantics. And as clues they need to be processed efficiently into communication, requiring skill. It is not surprising, then, that they are amenable to learning according to the tasks of Comprehension, Comparison, Composition, and Concentration.

COMPREHENSION:

Teacher: This word says "truck". Make a sentence with truck. (Pause) Juanita!

Juanita: My father drives a truck for Coca-Cola.

Teacher: Is that a good sentence for truck? Sergio!

Sergio: Yes, it is.

COMPARISON:

Teacher: Which word says "duck"? (Pause) Celia!

Celia points to the word.

Teacher: Did Celia point to the right word? David!

David: Yes, she did.

COMPOSITION:

Teacher: Read this part of the word.
(Pause) Tonio!

Tonio: ake /eyk/.

Teacher: Read the whole word.

Tonio: make /meyk/.

(Note: The same student performs both tasks.)

Teacher: Did Tonio read it correctly? Rosa!
(I.e., did Tonio read it intelligibly, and not necessarily with perfect pronunciation.)

Rosa: Yes, he did.

CONCENTRATION:

Teacher flashes a word card.

Teacher: What did that say? (Pause) Perla!

Perla: bake /beyk/.

Teacher: Is that right? Berting!

Berting: Yes, that's right.

(Note: The teacher does not show the flashed card to check the correctness of the response.)

MEDIUMS OF COMMUNICATION

Of which there are four general types for reading: sentence, paragraph, content, and style. (See chart A.) By medium is meant a whole more meaningful for communication than the sum of its parts. Familiarity with a medium

facilitates reading, improving with practice. Each medium has a system of semantic intentions that apply as "basic meanings" to each and every sample of the medium. For example, each basic sentence type of a language has a semantic intention all its own, and the transformational rules that expand (or shorten) them carry a subtext of interpretation unique to each rule (to each family of rules, more accurately). All these must be learned. It is these semantic intentions that a reader familiar with the language in which he is reading brings to the reading act. And he must become familiar with them as they "reveal" themselves in print though they do not appear there. That is, he must be able to generate these semantic intentions and interpretations with only the help of the clues on the printed page.

Familiarity with the medium stretches comprehension by facilitating recall of the message (sentence) and of the topic statement (paragraph),by providing a semantic field for determining relevance and relatedness (content), and by suggesting an affective manner by which the author is to some degree and in various aspects recognized and identified with by the reader (style).

SENTENCE: The basic unit of communication. It is

shaped by words and punctuation and spaces, but it is constructed of syntactic phrases. The function of this ordered set of phrases is a message. (6)

PARAGRAPH: An ordered set of sentences. It's function is semantic unity, which is expressed by a topic statement either explicitly or implicitly. The ability to discern the topic statement is beyond the ordinary ability to understand the messages of sentences.

CONTENT: An order-d set of general operations (ideas) internalized by the reader (Piaget's schemes and structures) (12) for determining relevance and relatedness of other operations. It puts the reader on familiar terms with the ideas of a subject area.

STYLE: An unordered set of characteristics of the content, the conventions, and the connotations peculiar to an author, his personality, his discipline, his culture, his imagination, etc. There is no style independent of the work, and it may be said that the work is the style. (5) Nevertheless, the style, or the work, puts the reader on familiar terms with the author. (Familiarity is relative, permitting one to identify the author of an unsigned piece, or confusing Chaucer with some of his imitators.)

The reader's familiarity with the particular content and with the particular style of the text facilitates his reading by providing a mind-set before the actual reading, by a lowering of anxiety (less disequilibrium), and by speedier processing.

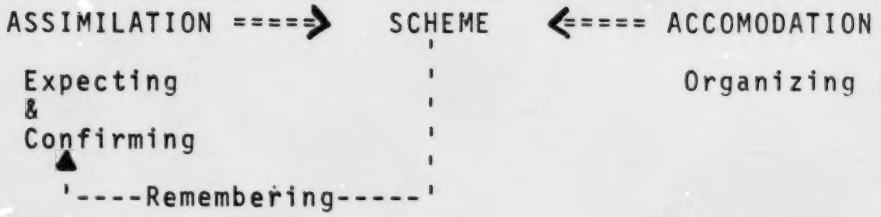
All four mediums of communication may be taught by means of the four learning tasks of Comprehension, Comparison, Composition, and Concentration, in that order. (See chart B.)

ADAPTIVE PROCESSES

They are adaptive because they seem to be shared with animals. In human terms they involve hypotheses in the following ways:

EXPECTING: Forming a hypothesis.
CONFIRMING: Believing a hypothesis.
REMEMBERING: Holding a hypothesis.
ORGANIZING: Integrating a hypothesis.

These four processes are a paraphrase of the interacting of stimulus with response and of response with stimulus of Jean Piaget (13):



All four adaptive processes participate in each of the four learning strategies for reading. (See chart A.) One of the processes may be more readily recognizable than the others in a particular learning strategy:

Comprehension:	REMEMBERING
Comparison:	EXPECTING
Composition:	ORGANIZING
Concentration:	CONFIRMING

The significant principle underlying the adaptive processes--and Piaget's work--is that for learning to take place the student must actively participate. He must pay attention (form a hypothesis), see and hear and do for himself (believe the hypothesis), become familiar with what is being taught (remember the hypothesis), and apply what he has learned (organize the hypothesis). Unless the teacher manages the learning experiences of her students to include and maintain these adaptive processes, to include her students, to motivate them to participate, no methodology on paper, no schema, will succeed.

TEACHING STRANDS

I have been developing a curriculum which in part incorporates the factors of the schema presented here. The strands, each a sequence of lesson plans and materials, are listed at the bottom of chart A. These I have developed (except for two, which are commercial publications), with the help of teachers, for the Spanish-speaking students of the San Ysidro School District. Many are updated versions of former work I have done for other Spanish-speaking students and for Navajo-speaking students. Some are new. (21)

The strands on the mediums of communication (sentences and paragraphs so far) make use of all four learning strategies. And so does Word Recognition. The others concentrate on one of the factors and make use of one or more of the learning strategies. For example, Sound Writing, a strand which reinforces the learning of the mechanics of writing with spelling patterns, makes use of Comprehension, Comparison, and Composition. Listening and Paragraph Recognition focus on Expecting and Confirming while making use of Concentration as the learning strategy. And Composition deals with paragraphs, teaching the students to organize their sentences into a unified whole.

All these strands meet the precondition set by the language-experience approach: the learner must be familiar with the specific language material beforehand, whether in reading, listening, speaking, or writing.

This paper has posited and explained semantics, shape, structure, and skill as the four major characteristics of Language. It has suggested the teaching-learning strategies that have been found effective in making these characteristics of Language a matter of conscious awareness and familiarity. The adaptive (learning) processes that make up each of these strategies have been delineated. The material that the student deals with directly--print, word, context, and background clues (source)--have been discussed. And observations have been made on major mediums of communication, the sentence, the paragraph, content, and style.

All these as part and parcel of the language-experience approach to reading--characterized by the precondition that the learner must be familiar with the specific language material before he begins the task of reading it...and learning how to read by it.

ADDENDUM: WORDS

Here are some word-segmenting rules for English, Spanish, and Pilipino. The effect of the rules is to sort out the syllables of the word. The purpose is to help the second-language learner in the process of narrowing the possibilities to the few auditory (or visual) reflections that he can quickly check and match, by elimination, with a word he already krows (as required by the language-experience approach). It helps by providing the student with syllables, the basic unit of speech perception. (2) It helps by providing a unit in which the permissible spelling patterns apply across the board. And together with the spelling patterns the syllable provides the student with the unit with which to predict stress (insofar as the particular language allows); and vice-versa: the placement of stress in a word helps sort out the syllables. This is not circular for as Thomas G. Bever points out, "the two behavioral systems, speech perception on the one hand and linguistic convention on the other hand, are being learned at the same time by the very young child." (2)

The rules are partially ordered, but for the sake of simplicity of presentation assume that they are completely

ordered. For example, the application of Rule 4 means that you have already tried out rules 1, 2, and 3.

The rules below are not all the rules and they will probably not hold for all words; but they are most of the rules and they will hold for most of the words.

ENGLISH

MONOSYLLABIC:

h/at	s/eat	g/oat	m/oon
/ice	sn/eeze	kn/ee	r/ing
f/ight	sm/oke	thr/oat	b/ook

1. Segment between the first vowel (counting from left to right) and the preceding letter(s), if any.

DISYLLABIC:

cup/cake	fire/man	door/bell	some/thing
bird/house	birth/day	base/ball	cow/boy

2. Segment between the two morphemes.

ei/ther	nei/ther	bro/thel	a/chieve
weath/er	wheth/er	leath/er	cush/ion
fa/ther	mo/ther	bro/ther	o/ther
ra/ther	bo/ther	gath/er	lath/er

3. Do not segment between the letters of a digraph; apply the rules below to the digraph as to any other consonant.

pan/ther	far/ther	pur/chase	al/pha
hun/gry	con/tract	mon/ster	hun/dred
ap/proach	at/tract	ac/crue	ac/claim
can/dle	tur/tle	wrin/kle	jun/gle
ap/ple	rat/tle	lit/tle	sad/dle

4. Segment between the first medial consonant and the following letters in a word with three medial consonants.

ta/ble	ri/fle	nee/dle	ti/tle
peo/ple	ca/ble	noo/dle	ea/gle

5. Segment between the consonant followed by <u>le</u> and the preceding letter(s) of the word.

pen/cil	ques/tion	twen/ty	fin/ger
ham/mer	pep/per	ar/row	les/son

6. Segment between the two medial consonants.

spi/der	ea/ger	mu/sic	so/fa
ti/ger	crea/ture	stu/pid	ho/gan

7. Segment between the single medial consonant and the preceding letter(s) when the preceding has a "long" vowel: /iy/, /ey/, /ay/, /aw/, /ow/, /uw/.

sec/ond	liz/ard	sug/ar	wag/on
col/or	rob/in	for/est	wat/er
co/lor	ro/ber	fo/rest	wa/ter

8. Segment between the single medial consonant and the following letters when the preceding has a "short" stressed vowel: /e/, /i/, /u/, /ae/, /a/. With /a/ the segmenting can be done before the single medial consonant.

a/bove	to/night	re/turn	de/cide
a/live	be/hind	e/rase	ga/rage

9. Segment between the single medial consonant and the preceding letters when the preceding is unstressed.

li/on	po/et	qui/et	ri/ot

10. Segment between the two vowels in words that do not have a medial consonant(s).

POLYSYLLABIC:

fam/ily	tel/escope	an/imal	choc/olate
yes/terday	al/phabet	hos/pital	ins/trument
to/geth/er	bi/cycle	beau/tiful	fa/vorite

11. Separate the stressed syllable according to the segmentation rules for disyllabic words above.

SPANISH

MONOSYLLABIC:

que	flor	pon	es	el	me	al
cual	pan	haz	soy	sus	lo	sin

1. There is no rule. The monosyllabic words of Spanish are learned as a list or partly as a list and partly as grammatical classes.

DISYLLABIC:

pasatiempo	tocadiscos	abrelatas	lavamanos
parasol	portamonedas	rompecabezas	salvavidas

2. Segment between the two morphemes.

co/che	mu/cho	te/cho	no/che
cue/llo	si/lla	ro/llo	pi/llo
bu/rro	pe/rro	tie/rra	go/rra
an/cho	man/cha	ran/cho	lan/cha

3. Segment between the digraph and the preceding letters.

cen/tro	con/tra	mien/tras	en/tre
so/pla	ha/bla	re/gla	tri/ple
som/bra	com/pra	nom/bre	siem/pre
su/fre	pie/dra	a/grio	so/bre

4. Segment between the consonant clusters pl, bl, cl, gl, fl(and)pr, br, tr, dr, cr. gr, fr and the preceding letters.

us/ted doc/tor dien/te rom/pe

jar/dín bas/tón nun/ca for/ma

5. Segment between the two medial consonants.

lu/na ra/ma lo/co pla/ya

na/riz sa/lud tra/je cru/za

6. Segment between the single medial consonant and the preceding letter(s).

POLYSYLLABIC:

li/cen/cia gi/gan/te na/ran/ja es/fuer/zo

her/ma/na can/sa/da cam/pa/na ban/de/ra

biz/co/cho en/cie/rra a/ni/llo gui/ta/rra

pin/tu/ra bas/tan/te lá/gri/ma pri/ma/ve/ra

8. Separate the stressed syllable according to the segmentation rules for disyllabic words above.

PILIPINO

MONOSYLLABIC:

mo ba si ng ko kung

1. There is no rule. The monosyllabic words of Pilipino are learned as a list or partly as a list and partly as grammatical classes.

---

ma/íz le/on le/er re/ír

dí/a rí/o fe/o ti/o

7. Segment between the two vowels in words that do not have a medial consonant(s).

DISYLLABIC:

tat/lo	ak/lat	kar/ton	sug/po
kam/bing	san/tol	pin/to	san/dok

2. Segment between the two medial consonants.

a/so	bi/his	bu/kas	da/mit
ka/may	ka/nin	ka/pit	ta/nim

3. Segment between the single medial consonant and the preceding letters.

POLYSYLLABIC:

hampas/lupa	numero/uno	halim/bawa
old/timer	walang/hiya	

5. Segment betwen the two morphemes.

bin/ta/na	sa/pa/tos	ku/tsil/yo	te/ne/dor
kun/ya/ri	mas/ya/do	tsi/ne/las	pre/si/den/te

6. Separate the stressed syllable according to the segmentation rules for disyllabic words above.

---

ta/as	ka/in	pa/a	pa/it
ta/o	ta/on	ma/is	ba/it

4. Segment between the two vowels in words that do not have a medial consonant(s).

ADDENDUM: SENTENCES

Here are some examples of segmented sentences in English, Spanish, and Pilipino. The general rule is to try to segment the sentence into phrases higher than the word and that they be syntactic phrases with syntactic functions like Subject, Predicate, Direct Object, Indirect Object, Complement, Subordinate Conjunction, Clause, etc.

The number of phrases you use per sentence depends on the abilities of your students and on the complexity of the sentences you use. For the early grades I use no more than four phrases per sentence with no more than two clauses. Most likely, more than seven phrases per sentence would be redundant.

Note that segmentation of sentences does not reveal the structures and processes of transformations involved in generating complex sentences. Students who cannot paraphrase complex sentences into their underlying simpler structures should not be introduced to segmentation of complex sentences. To do so would be to violate the precondition of the language-experience approach.

ENGLISH

1. The party / will be / at five o'clock.
2. She cooked/ for a living.
3. I don't speak/ Spanish.
4. They / gave me / the ball.
5. We /built a house / for him.
6. They asked/ him / to go.
7. They wanted / to go.
8. The boys / anticipated / going to the party.
9. The girls / saw / the horse run away.
10. They elected / him president.
11. It / is safe / for us / to go home / now.
12. There was / a ghost / in the house.
13. I saw / the boy / who took / the book.
14. I don't know / which book / he wants.
15. I left / early / because / I was / hungry.
16 I'll see you / before / you leave / for the U.S.
17. If / you're upset / with her / tell her / so.
18. She would like / to come / to the party / but / she's shy.
19. The monkeys, the lions, and the turtles / joined us.
20. Tortured with jealousy / she decided / to end / the affair.

SPANISH (19)

1. Ellas / son / compañeras de escuela.
2. Ellos / corren bien.
3. Los soldados / quieren / el agua.
4. El dio / el libro / a Juan.
5. El / se lo dio / a Juan.
6. Los estudiantes / eligieron / presidente / a Juan.
7. Ellos creían / bonita / a María.
8. Yo vi / a los hombres / correr.
9. Yo oí / a la senorita / leerlo.
10. Yo escuche / al hombre / leyendo el libro.
11. El soldado / debe / tomar cerveza.
12. El acaba / de salir.
13. Hay / un señor / afuera.
14. Le pide / que / se case / con él.
15. No dudo / que / ha estudiado / mucho.
16. Es preciso / que estudies.
17. Ha coleccionado / mariposas / que tienen / alas rojas.
18. Voy a hacerlo / a pesar / de lo que / tú dices.
19. No lo veré / aunque / salga mañana.
20. Vamos / adonde / tú dices.
21. Me / van a llamar / cuando lleguen / y / vamos / adonde digan.

PILIPINO (7)

1. Nakarinig siya / ng putok.
2. Tumingin / sa kalendaryo / ang lalaki.
3. Nagbigay / ng tinapay / sa lalaki / si Ben.
4. Binigyan ni Ben / ng tinapay / ang lalaki.
5. Nagpabigay ng tinapay / sa lalaki / kay Ben / ang nanay.
6. Ipinagpaluto ng Nanay / ng tinapay / sa lalaki / si Ben.
7. Pinabigyan ng Nanay / kay Ben / ng tinapay / ang lalaki.
8. Pinapangisdaan ng Nanay / kay Ben / ang ilog.
9. Duktor / siya.
10. Mukhang mahusay / siya.
11. Tinawagan niya / ang duktor / dahil / may sakit / ang Nanay.
12. Naging gobernador / si Juan Garcia / at / yumaman siya.
13. Pumasok / lumabas / at / pumasuk ulit.
14. Nasaan / ang papeles niya / kung / binili niya / ang kotse?
15. Gusto kong / kumain / sa bahay mo.
16. Narinig mo / ba/ kumanta si Rosario / sa bahay ko?
17. Marunong ka /ba/ kumanta?
18. Paglabas ninyo / sa bahay /tumakbo kayo.
19. Kumain muna kayo /bago / kayo umuwi.
20. Salamat /at / tapos na / ang trabaho ko!

A Schema for the Teaching of Reading

A

Language		*Learning*
Semantics		Comprehension
Shape		Comparison
Structure		Composition
Skill		Concentration
[1]Sentences	[4]Words	[9]Expecting
[2]Paragraphs	[5]Print	[10]Confirming
[3]Content	[7]Context	[11]Remembering
[4]Style	[8]Source	[12]Organizing
Mediums of Communication	*Clues*	*Adaptive Processes*

1. Sentence Recognition, 1-2*
   Basal Sentence Reading, 1-2
2. Basal Paragraph Reading, 3-4
   Composition, 3-5
3.
4.
5. Word Recognition, 1-2
   Affix Spelling, 3
6. Visual, P
   Better Handwriting, 1-4
6. Sound Writing, 1-2
7. Vocabulary, 3-4
8. New Open Highways, 1-8
9. Listening, 2
   Paragraph Recognition, 3
10. Paragraph Recognition, 4
11. Preschool
    Kindergarten
12. ESL: Syntax, BK 1 . . .
    (Critical Thinking, 3 . . .)

*The numbers to the right of each strand indicate the suggested grade level.

B

	Sentence	*Paragraph*	*Content*	*Style*
Imposition	This sentence says, ". . . ." *Do as it says. *Answer this question, ". . . ?" (explicitly answered by the sentence.	What questions will the next page answer? Read. Answer the questions. *Learner answers. *The story doesn't say, ". . . but I think that . . . ."	Write the topic statements of this first section of the story/article in sequence.	Paraphrase several (sets of) paragraphs from the beginning of the story/article.
	*Which sentence says, ". . . ."? *Which sentence answers the question, ". . . ?" *Which sentence tells us that	Which paragraph answers the central question?	Which topic statements are (not) relevant to the author's purpose?	*Make up an imitation title for each of the model paragraphs above. *Make up an imitation topic statement for each of the model paragraphs above. *Both.
Comparison	Reach this phrase. Read the sentence. (Both tasks for the same student.) *What question does this phrase answer?	What other (supportive) questions does this paragraph answer? (Books closed, eventually)	*Summarize the first section of the story/article. *Organize the relevant topics into an outline.	Write a stylistically close imitation of one of the model paragraphs.
Comprehension	*Flash. What did that say? *The question is: ". . . ?" Flash. Did that answer the question? (Continue till the question is answered.)	The question is: ". . . ?" Read. (5 seconds) Close your book. Answer the question. Occasionally ask another question.	Read the rest of the story/article as fast as possible. (Measure: wpm) Followed by discussion with books closed.	Read the rest of the story/article as fast as possible. (Measure: wpm) Followed by discussion with books closed.

BEST AVAILABLE COPY

REFERENCES

1. Athey, Irene. "Syntax, Semantics, and Reading," Cognition, Curriculum, and Comprehension, Guthrie, John T. (ed.). Newark: IRA, 1977, 71-98.

2. Bever, Thomas G. "Language and Perception." Communication, Language, and Meaning, Miller, George A. (ed.). New York: Basic Books, 1973, 149-158.

3. Chomsky, Noam. Aspects of the Theory of Syntax. Cambridge: The MIY Press, 1965.

4. Chomsky, Noam. Studies on Semantics in Generative Grammar. The Hague: Mouton, 1972.

5. Gray, Bennison. Style, the Problem and its Solution. The Hague: Mouton, 1969.

6. Guthrie, John T. "Reading Comprehension Processes and Instruction," Cognition, Curriculum, and Comprehension, Guthrie, John T. (ed.). Newark: IRA, 1977, 283-296.

7. Hall, MaryAnne. The Language Experience Approach for the Culturally Disadvantaged. Newark: IRA, 1972.

8. Mattingly, Ignatius C. "Reading, the Linguistic Process, and Linguistic Awareness," Language by Ear and Eye, Kavanagh, James F. and Mattingly, Ignatius C. (eds.). Cambridge: The MIT Press, 1972, 133-148.

9. Otanes, Fe T. "A Contrastive Analysis of English and Tagalog Verb Complementation." Unpublished class paper, UCLA, 1964. (Many of the sentences in the list are from this paper. Any errors in them are mine.)

10. Perfetti, C.A. "Language Comprehension and Fast Decoding: Some Psycholinguistic Prerequisites for Skilled Reading," Cognition, Curriculum, and Comprehension, Guthrie, John T. (ed.). Newark: IRA, 1977, 20-41.

11. Piaget, Jean. Six Psychological Studies. New York: Vintage Books, 1968.

12. Piaget, Jean and Inhelder, Barbel. The Psychology of the Child. New York: Basic Books, 1969.

13. Piaget, Jean. Structuralism. New York: Basic Books, 1970.

14. Piaget, Jean. To Understand is to Invent. New York: The Viking Press, 1974.

15. Sinclair, A., Jarvella,R.J., and Levelt, W.J.M. (eds.). The Child's Conception of Language. New York: Springer-Verlag, 1978.

16. Smith, Frank. Psycholinguistics and Reading. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1973.

17. Stockwell, Robert P."A Contrastive Analysis of English and Tagalog," unpublished ms., 1957.

18. Stockwell, Robert P., Bowen, J. Donald, and Martin, John W. The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1965.

19. Stockwell, Robert P. and Bowen, J. Donald. The Sounds of English and Spanish. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1965.

20. Vygotsky, L.S. Thought and Language. Cambridge: The MIT Press and John Wiley & Sons, 1962.

21. Wilson, Robert D. "Assumptions for Bilingual Instruction in the Primary Grades of Navajo Schools," Bilingualism in the Southwest, Turner, Paul R. (ed.). Tucson: The University of Arizona Press, 1973, 143-175.

22. Wilson, Robert D. "The Why of How to Teach Reading," Claremont Reading Conference/1979. Claremont: The Claremont Reading Conference, 1979, 112-120.